

# Effect of particle size and dopant on properties of SnO<sub>2</sub>-based gas sensors

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## Abstract

The effect of composition, microstructure, and defect chemistry on sensing performance of gas sensors based on CuO-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> is investigated using sol–gel derived nano-sized powders (about 20 nm). The particle size of copper oxide doped tin oxide is varied by annealing at different temperatures and a significant grain growth is observed at temperatures above 1000°C due to the liquid phase sintering effect of copper oxide. The reduction of particle size to nanometers, or to the dimension comparable to the thickness of charge depletion layer, leads to a dramatic improvement in sensitivity and speed of response. It appears that the substitution of Sn by Cu in the cassiterite structure increases the concentration of oxygen vacancies and decreases the concentration of free electrons. In particular, the existence of cuprous ions (Cu<sup>+</sup>), due to partial reduction of Cu<sup>2+</sup> during sintering, plays an important role in enhancing the sensor response to nitric oxide (NO) and CO<sub>2</sub>. © 2000 Elsevier Science S.A. All rights reserved.

*Keywords:* SnO<sub>2</sub>; CuO; Sol–gel; Nanostructure-material; Gas sensor

## 1. Introduction

Many pure and doped semiconducting oxides have been used for gas sensors, especially SnO<sub>2</sub>-based materials due to its unique sensing properties. Modification of surface and bulk properties of tin oxide through doping of impurities is an effective way to improve sensitivity and selectivity [1,2]. Galdikas et al. [3] reported that the sensitivity of a tin oxide sensor was improved by small amounts of Cu sputtered on the surface. This effect is related to the induced surface states that were detected using XPS. Particle size and doping have also been reported [4] to influence the performance of SnO<sub>2</sub> gas sensors. Yamazeo and Miura [5] studied the effect of grain size on the sensitivity of SnO<sub>2</sub> gas sensors and concluded that the sensitivity to both CO and H<sub>2</sub> increased considerably as grain size was reduced. Li and Kawi [6] synthesized high surface area SnO<sub>2</sub> using a surfactant templating method and found that the sensitivity to H<sub>2</sub> increased linearly with the surface

area of SnO<sub>2</sub>. When particle size is reduced to nanometers, especially when the dimension of the crystallite is on the order of the thickness of the charge depletion layer, energy band bending is no longer restricted to the surface region, but extends into the bulk of the grains. In other words, the properties of the whole grain, not just the surface, may change completely due to solid–gas interaction. Accordingly, nanostructure is expected to have a dramatic influence on sensor performance. To date, however, copper oxide doped tin oxide with nanostructure for nitric oxide (NO) and CO<sub>2</sub> detection has not been reported yet. In this study, sol–gel derived CuO-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> nano-sized powders [7] are used to investigate the effect of nanostructure on its sensing characteristics to NO and CO<sub>2</sub> and possible sensing mechanisms are proposed.

## 2. Experimental

Nano-sized powders of pure SnO<sub>2</sub> were prepared as described elsewhere [7] and the powders of CuO-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> were prepared in a similar manner. Appropriate amounts (up to 50 mol%) of copper nitrate was added to the SnCl<sub>4</sub> sol solution as described for preparing pure

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SnO<sub>2</sub> [7]. In order to investigate particle size dependence of sensor performance, the nano-sized powders were then annealed at different temperatures (800–1200°C) to vary the particle size. The annealed powders with desired particle sizes were then mixed with 5 wt.% of ethylene glycol (binder) and subsequently pressed into pellets (under a pressure of 2500 psi) to form porous sensing elements. Platinum pastes were screen-printed on both sides of the pellets and then fired at 650°C for 15 min to remove the binder. Structural and morphological changes of the powders were characterized using X-ray diffraction (XRD) (Philips PW-1800 X-ray diffractometer) and electron microscopy (Hitachi S-800 scanning electron microscope and

Hitachi HF-2000 transmission electron microscope). Shown in Fig. 1 are the typical microstructures of the sensing elements (pellets pressed from powders) before sensor performance testing, which are essentially the same as that of the powders after annealing at different temperatures.

The sensing elements with platinum electrodes were placed in a tube furnace and a gas flow meter was used to control the flow rate of sample gases. The steady-state resistances (or conductances) of the sensing elements were determined using an EG&G potentiostat/galvanostat (273 A) interfaced with a computer. In a typical sensor response measurement, a constant voltage of 0.5 V was applied to each pellet while the corresponding steady-state

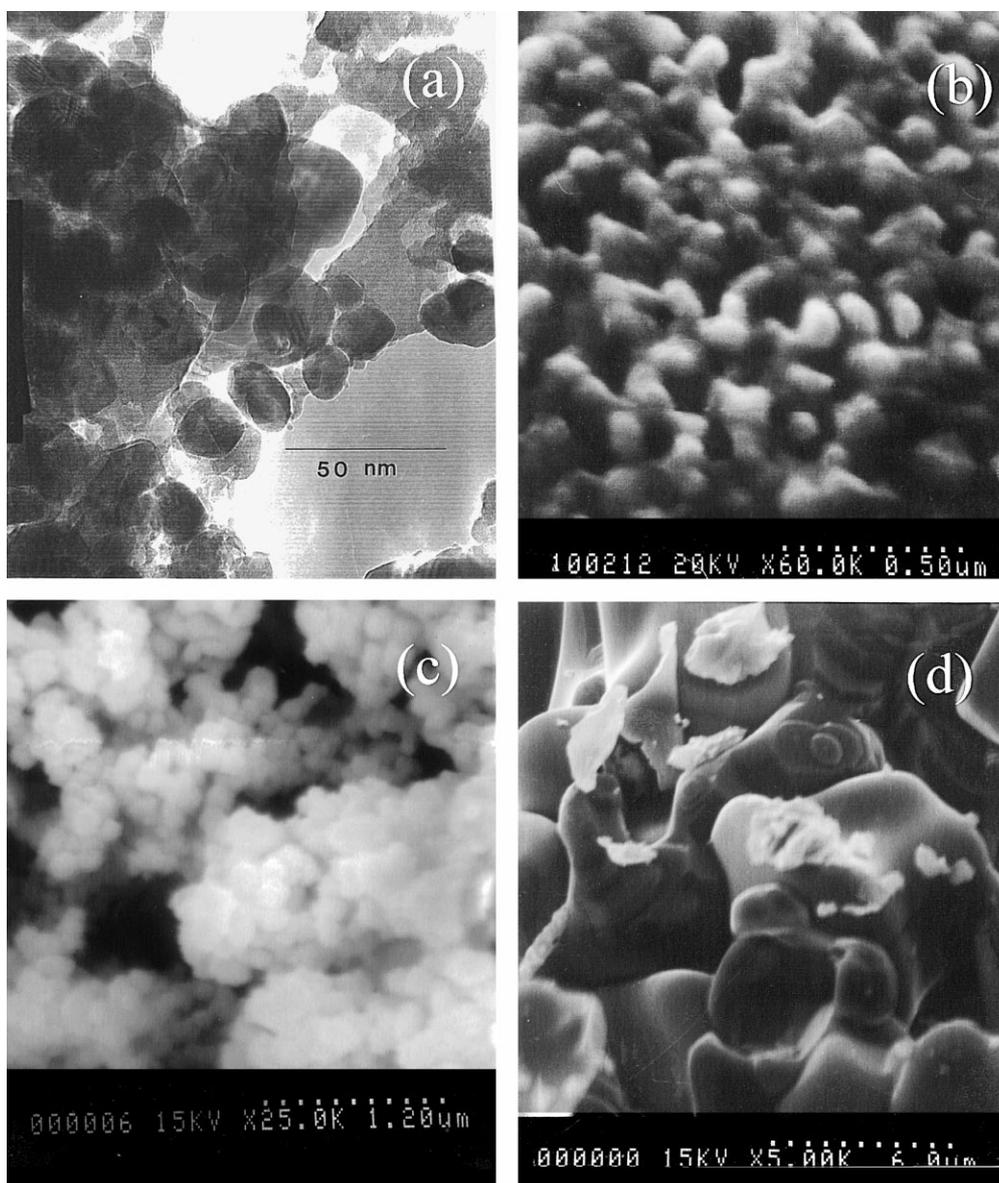


Fig. 1. TEM and SEM micrographs of SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) as annealed at (a) 600°C (20 nm), (b) 800°C (100 nm), (c) 1000°C (290 nm), and (d) 1200°C (6 μm) in air for 2 h. The dimension in each parenthesis represents the average size of the SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) particles.

current responses were recorded when different gases were flown through the test tube at a flow rate of 200 cm<sup>3</sup>/min. Conductivities were calculated from the applied voltages, output currents, and the dimensions of the sensing elements (electrode area and pellet thickness).

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Morphology, microstructure, and composition

Fig. 1 shows the morphologies of SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) powders annealed at different temperatures. The average particle size increased with annealing temperature from 20 nm at 600°C, to 100 nm at 800°C, to 290 nm at 1000°C, and to 6 μm at 1200°C. The surface area decreased accordingly with particle size or annealing temperature. The powders annealed at temperatures below 1000°C were highly porous which, in general, is preferred for gas sensor applications. To reveal the effect of copper oxide on sintering behavior of tin oxide, the particle sizes of pure SnO<sub>2</sub> samples and those of CuO-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> under the same firing conditions are shown in Fig. 2. It is evident that below 1000°C, there is little difference in particle size between them. Above 1000°C, however, a significant grain growth occurred in the SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO), due to a liquid-phase sintering effect of copper oxide. As studied by Dolet et al. [8], copper oxide was observed to melt between 1000°C and 1200°C, depending upon specific oxygen partial pressure. They observed the presence of copper-rich coagulated droplets on the surface of tin oxide sintered at 1150°C.

Shown in Fig. 3 are the XRD patterns of the SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) powders fired for 2 h at 600°C, 800°C, and 1000°C, respectively, together with the standard XRD patterns for SnO<sub>2</sub>, CuO, and Cu<sub>2</sub>O. For the powders fired at 600°C,

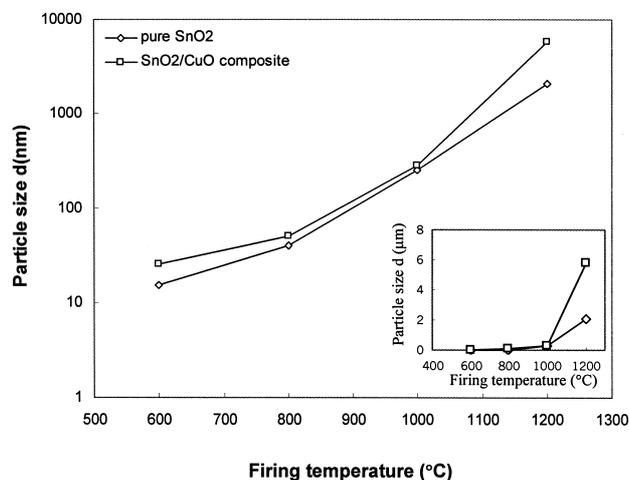


Fig. 2. Average particle sizes of pure SnO<sub>2</sub> and CuO-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> annealed at different temperatures in air for 2 h, showing the effect of copper oxide on the sintering behavior of SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO).

the observable peaks correspond to the cassiterite phase of SnO<sub>2</sub> and no peaks correspond to either CuO or Cu<sub>2</sub>O phase, indicating that copper oxide is amorphous. For the powders annealed at temperature above 600°C, peaks of copper oxide become observable but intensities of the peaks remain low, suggesting that the concentration of copper oxide phase in the SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) be small, far smaller than expected from that of its initial loading in the sol solution. There are two possible reasons in addition to the influence of the element scattering from tin: volatilization of copper oxide during sintering and doping of copper oxide into SnO<sub>2</sub>. Labeau et al. [9] observed the volatilization of copper oxide during annealing at 800°C and attributed it to be the major source of copper oxide loss. Another possibility is that a considerable amount of copper ions dissolves into the tin oxide lattice. EDS analysis on a TEM of a single grain of CuO-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> shows that the average doping concentration of copper in tin oxide crystal annealed at 600°C is 15.6 mol%, which is much higher than that in SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) solid solution previously reported, about 5% copper oxide [1,10]. This is most likely due to the different methods by which copper oxides were doped. Tin and copper ions were mixed at an atomic level in this study in the initial sol solution whereas the impregnation of copper ion solutions into tin oxide powder was generally adopted by other researchers [1,9]. In addition, the solubility of tin oxide in copper oxide was also studied by analyzing the composition of the copper enriched phase. Results indicated that the solubility of tin ions in copper oxide lattice was within the experimental error.

#### 3.2. Sensor responses to NO, CO<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>2</sub>

Shown in Fig. 4 are the responses of a SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) sample, annealed at 600°C for 2 h, to different concentrations of NO in Ar measured at 200°C. The SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) is more sensitive to NO than pure SnO<sub>2</sub>. For example, when gas was switched from Ar to 1000 ppm NO in Ar, the resistance of SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) changed by a factor of 4.3 whereas that of pure SnO<sub>2</sub> changed by a factor of 2.9. Even though SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) and pure SnO<sub>2</sub> follow the same trend of change in the response time (i.e., the time required to reach 90% of the full response) with gas concentration, response time of SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO), 3 min, is much shorter than that of pure SnO<sub>2</sub>, 18 min. In all cases, the output signals essentially recover to the original level, an indication of reversible interactions between the sensing elements and the gas to be detected. Fig. 5 shows the correlation between sensor responses and NO concentrations. Fig. 6 shows the effect of temperature on the responses of pure SnO<sub>2</sub> and SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) with nanostructure (20 nm) in 1000 ppm NO. It is evident that the sensitivity of SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) varies with operating temperature in a different way from that of pure SnO<sub>2</sub>. While the sensitivity of SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) to

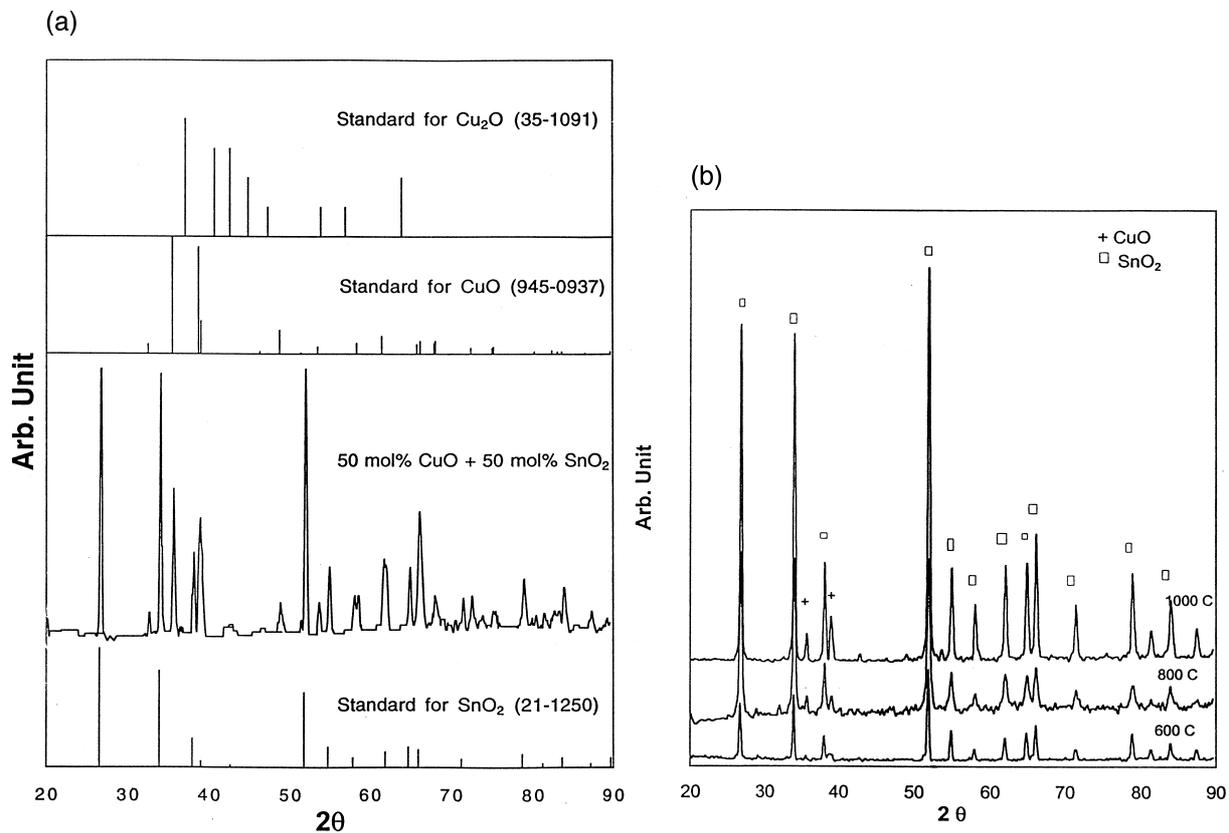


Fig. 3. XRD patterns of (a) standards for  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{CuO}$ , and  $\text{SnO}_2$ , and physical mixture of  $\text{CuO} + \text{SnO}_2$  and (b)  $\text{SnO}_2(\text{CuO})$  annealed at different temperatures for 2 h.

$\text{NO}$  reached a maximum at  $200^\circ\text{C}$  and then decreased with temperature thereafter, the pure  $\text{SnO}_2$  exhibited an optimal

sensitivity to  $\text{NO}$  at temperature around  $300^\circ\text{C}$ . This suggests that the underlying gas–solid interactions associated

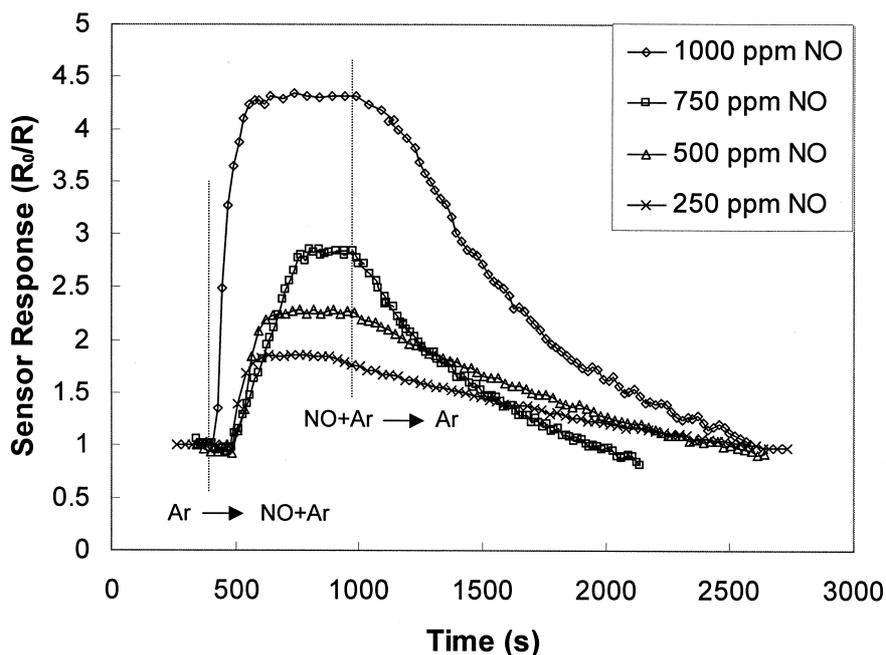


Fig. 4. Dynamic response to  $\text{NO}$ - $\text{Ar}$  gas mixtures at  $200^\circ\text{C}$  of  $\text{SnO}_2(\text{CuO})$  sensor with average grain size of 20 nm.

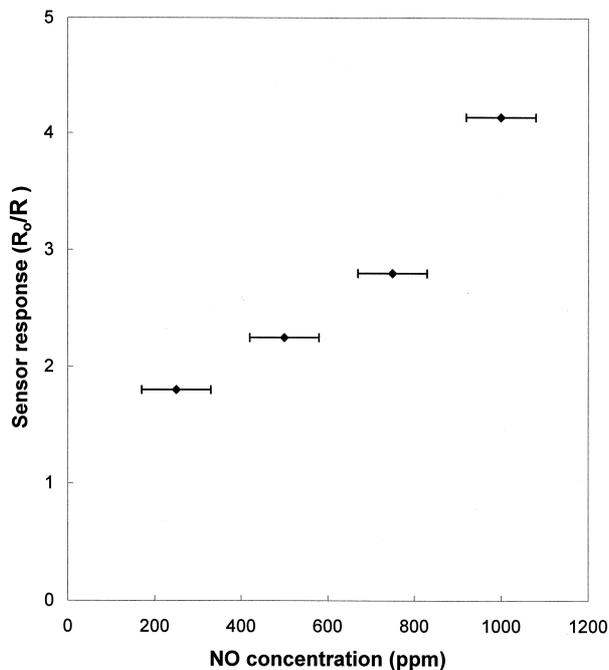


Fig. 5. Typical SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) sensor responses to different concentrations of NO in Ar at 200°C. The average grain size of the SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) sensor is 20 nm.

with different materials correspond to different characteristic temperatures. Accordingly, it is essential to carefully adjust the operating temperature of the sensor in order to obtain optimum performance to a specific gas species.

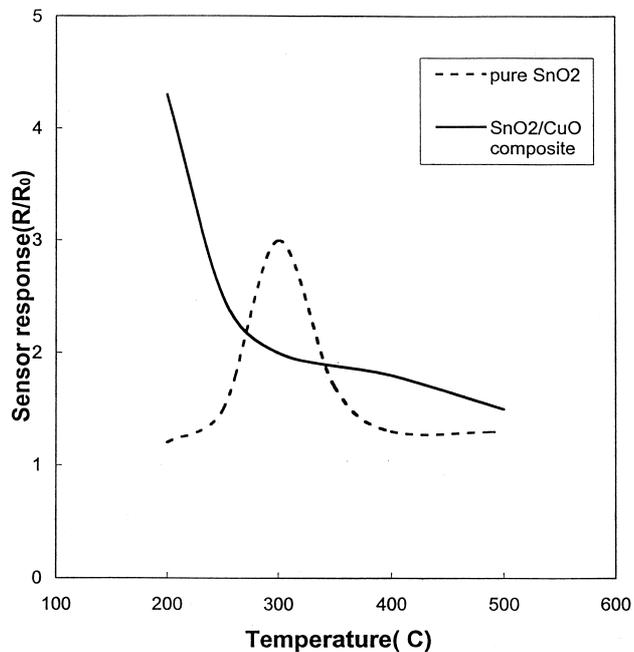


Fig. 6. Effect of temperature on the sensitivity of SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) and pure SnO<sub>2</sub> annealed at 600°C for 2 h. The average particle size of the SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) powder is 20 nm and the sensor responses were measured in 1000 ppm NO.

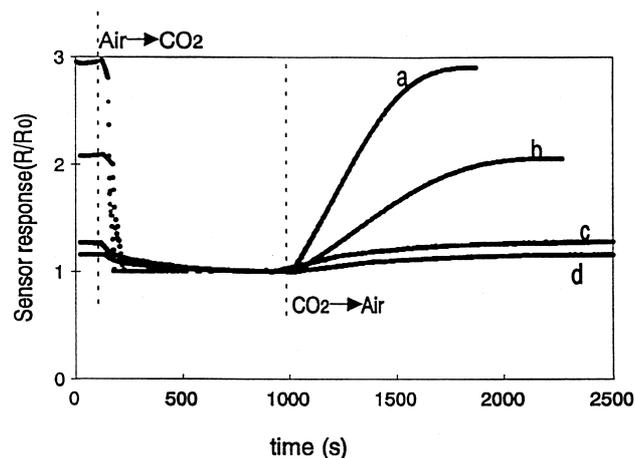


Fig. 7. Dynamic response of SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) sensors annealed at different temperatures to CO<sub>2</sub> tested at 400°C. The microstructures of the sensors labeled as a, b, c, and d correspond to those shown in Fig. 1 labeled as a, b, c, and d.

Fig. 7 shows the dynamic response of the SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) with different particle size to CO<sub>2</sub>. The resistance of the sample increases fast within 1 min upon exposure to CO<sub>2</sub> switched from air. It is confirmed that the maximum sensor response decreases with particle size due to the decreased surface area. Fig. 8 shows that the sensor response of the material varied with CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Since oxygen plays an important role in the performance of tin oxide based gas sensor, the response of this sensing element to oxygen was also studied. Fig. 9 shows the dynamic response of SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) with nanostructure (20 nm) to the change of

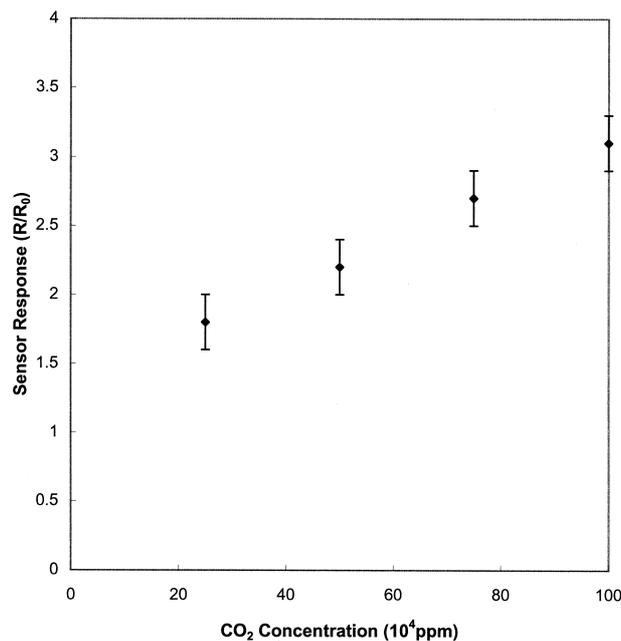


Fig. 8. Typical SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) sensor response to different concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> in Ar at 400°C. The average grain size of the SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) sensor is 20 nm.

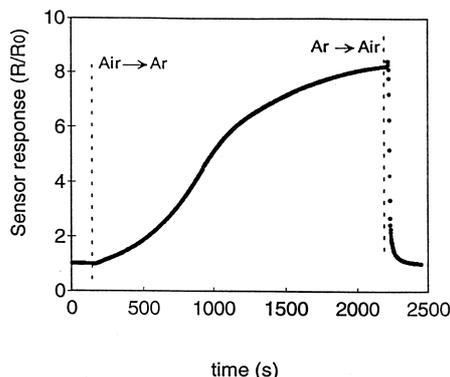


Fig. 9. Dynamic response of a  $\text{SnO}_2(\text{CuO})$  sensor with grain size of 20 nm to oxygen at  $400^\circ\text{C}$ .

oxygen partial pressure (switched from argon to air). The resistance of the material decreased upon exposure to argon, indicating that  $\text{SnO}_2(\text{CuO})$  is an n-type semiconducting oxide.

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1. Effect of particle size

The height of energy barrier to electron transport between neighboring grains in the  $\text{SnO}_2(\text{CuO})$  is an important factor, which determines sensitivity of the material. The temperature dependence of conductivity of a semiconductor can be approximated by the Arrhenius equation [11],

$$\sigma = \sigma_0 \exp\left(\frac{-eV_s}{kT}\right), \quad (1)$$

where  $\sigma_0$  is a factor that includes the bulk intragranular conductance,  $k$  the Boltzmann's constant,  $T$  the absolute temperature, and  $eV_s$  the potential energy barrier at the interface between two neighboring particles.

$$eV_s = \frac{e^2 N_t^2}{2 \epsilon_r \epsilon_0 N_d}, \quad (2)$$

where  $N_t$  is the surface density of adsorbed oxygen ions ( $\text{O}_2^-$  or  $\text{O}^-$ ),  $\epsilon_r \epsilon_0$  the permittivity of the semiconductor, and  $N_d$  the volumetric density of the electron donors. Clearly, the energy barrier is a function of temperature, atmosphere (oxygen partial pressure), and dopant concentration; each of these parameters influences the energy barrier, the conductivity, and thus the sensitivity. Further,  $eV_s$  depends on particle size, especially when particle size is reduced to nanometers or in the order of the thickness of charge depletion layer ( $X_d$ ). Different particle size corresponds to different ratio of  $X_d$  to the radius of the particles, provided that the absolute value of  $X_d$  is relatively independent of particle size. If the particle size is

much larger than the  $X_d$ , the band bending resulting from the surface states  $X_d$  is restricted only to the surface region of the particle. If the particle size is reduced to nanometers (or on the order of  $X_d$ ), however, the properties of the entire particles, not just the surfaces or interfaces, change dramatically due to solid–gas interactions, leading to a substantial improvement in sensor response. It is anticipated that both surface area and the ratio of charge depletion layer to the radius of particle will influence sensor responses. Thus, the sensitivity depends critically on particle size. The dependence of the energy barrier on particle size was studied as follows: the conductivities of the  $\text{SnO}_2(\text{CuO})$  samples with different particle sizes were measured at temperatures from  $150^\circ\text{C}$  to  $250^\circ\text{C}$  in pure argon. It was found that the energy barrier, determined from the slope of the Arrhenius plots shown in Fig. 10, decreased with increasing particle size, implying that the sensitivity of the  $\text{SnO}_2(\text{CuO})$  decreased with particle size.

### 4.2. Effect of doping

There are two possible positions, substitutional and interstitial, in the tin oxide lattice where copper ions can be introduced. In the first case,  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  may substitute  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  as follows,



implying that substitution of  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  by  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  increases the oxygen vacancy concentration. At the same time, the equilibrium between solid and gas,



requires that the free electron concentration decreases with the concentration of oxygen vacancies at a given oxygen partial pressure.

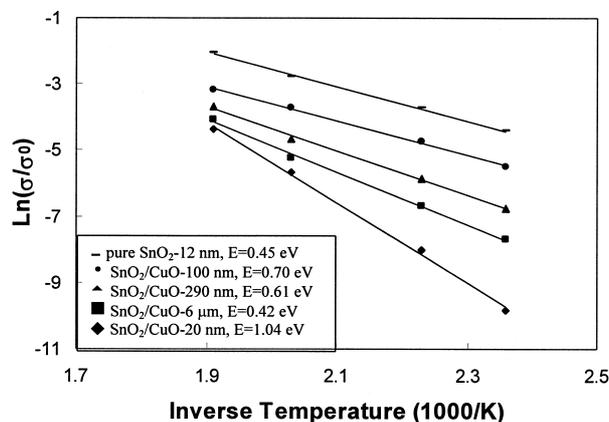
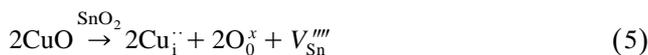


Fig. 10. Temperature dependence of conductivity of pure  $\text{SnO}_2$  and  $\text{SnO}_2(\text{CuO})$  with different particle sizes (annealed at different temperatures).

In the second case, the copper ions may occupy the interstitial sites in SnO<sub>2</sub> lattice according to the following defect reaction,



Further, the equilibrium for Schottky defects,



implies that the increase in concentration of  $V_{\text{Sn}}^{\prime\prime\prime}$  due to interstitial doping of copper ions results in a decrease in the concentration of oxygen vacancies and hence an increase of free electron concentration in tin oxide at a given oxygen partial pressure. The resistivity of pure SnO<sub>2</sub> measured at 600°C at a constant oxygen partial pressure (pure argon) was  $2.4 \times 10^4 \Omega \text{ cm}$  and that of the CuO-doped tin oxide was  $1.7 \times 10^4 \Omega \text{ cm}$ , implying that the copper ions substituted Sn at the regular lattice sites in tin oxide. It is more reasonable for copper ions to occupy substitutional than interstitial positions since the radii of Cu<sup>2+</sup> and Sn<sup>4+</sup> are 0.72 and 0.71 Å, respectively. The decrease in free electron concentration also resulted in an increase in  $X_d$ , thus increasing the energy barrier between adjacent grains.

#### 4.3. Sensing mechanism

Sensor response depends mainly on the interactions between the sensing element and the gas to be detected. The interactions include physical and chemical adsorption. Physical adsorption refers to a surface adsorption caused by induced dipole–dipole or Van der Waals interactions. Chemical adsorption, on the other hand, involves primary bonding or electrostatic interaction. The chemical interaction typically involves exchange electrons between adsorbed gas molecules and the metal oxide semiconductor, resulting in a change in band bending near interfaces and hence the electrical property of the sensing element.

The processes involved in a specific gas–metal oxide interaction may include formation of intermediate species, transport of species, and recombination with other species.

The first step is the formation of high-reactivity intermediate species such as dissociated atoms, free radicals, electrons, and excited molecules. Some transition metals or metal ions function as a catalyst to accelerate the speed of response of a sensor material to a specific gas. Another process is the movement of the intermediate species on the surface or into the bulk of the materials before recombination with either preadsorbed species on the surface or other defects in the bulk phase. These intermediate species will transport under the influence of a gradient in electrochemical potential if the activation site of the intermediate species is different from that of the recombination site. The recombination with other active species will complete the process of exchanging electrons between the sensing elements and the gas to be detected. The speed of sensor response is controlled by the slowest step, the rate-limiting

step of the processes. Consequently, improving sensor performance depends on selecting a good catalyst to speed up the rate-limiting step and to minimize the average diffusion length of the intermediate species.

##### 4.3.1. Oxidation state of Cu

The oxidation state of copper in SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) is important since it influences the interaction with other gas species such as CO<sub>2</sub> [12] and NO [13]. Liu and Robota [14] observed that even under strongly oxidizing conditions, a significant fraction of the copper still remains as cuprous ions (Cu<sup>+</sup>). In our study, copper and tin ions are homogeneously dispersed in the gel structure before firing. The local oxygen deficiency, when firing in steady air, may trigger the occurrence of the following reaction:



which reduces some Cu<sup>2+</sup> to Cu<sup>1+</sup> and thus, Cu<sup>2+</sup> and Cu<sup>+</sup> coexist in the SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO). It is the Cu<sup>+</sup> ions in the material that play an important role in interaction with NO and CO<sub>2</sub>.

##### 4.3.2. NO detection

The catalytic reactions of NO over various transition metals have been extensively studied [13,15]. Especially for the catalyst containing copper ions, a redox mechanism associated with the valence change of copper was proposed [14]. Due to its high tendency of unpaired electrons to pair with another electron for bonding saturation, NO is adsorbed on active centers, Cu<sup>+</sup>, and then reduced to NO<sup>-</sup> radicals as Cu<sup>+</sup> is oxidized to Cu<sup>2+</sup>. The highly active NO<sup>-</sup> combines with the preadsorbed O<sup>-</sup> on the surface of tin oxide to form NO<sub>2</sub> and at the same time the electrons are released to the conduction band of tin oxide. Only adsorbed O<sup>-</sup> is taken into consideration in the interaction because of the low testing temperature, 200°C. At this temperature, it is difficult for NO<sup>-</sup> to react directly with other species, such as O<sub>0</sub><sup>x</sup>, O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, and O<sup>2-</sup> preadsorbed on the surface of SnO<sub>2</sub>. In this process, the activation of NO gas molecules to active NO<sup>-</sup> is an important step. This seems to be suggested by the comparative study of the dynamic responses of SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) and pure SnO<sub>2</sub> to NO. The speed of response of pure SnO<sub>2</sub> to NO is much slower than that of SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO), due to the lack of the catalytic activation of NO over copper ions. Moreover, it seems that the copper in the tin oxide lattice helps to lower the desorption energy of the O<sup>-</sup> preadsorbed on the tin oxide surface when gas was switched from Ar to 1000 ppm NO + Ar. The sensor response ( $R/R_0$ ) was enhanced from 2.9 for pure SnO<sub>2</sub> to 4.3 for doped SnO<sub>2</sub> probably because more adsorbed O<sup>-</sup> can be desorbed during the process. The temperature for maximum sensitivity to NO is 200°C for SnO<sub>2</sub>(CuO) and 300°C for pure SnO<sub>2</sub>. It seems that more energy is needed for the NO to grab O<sup>-</sup>

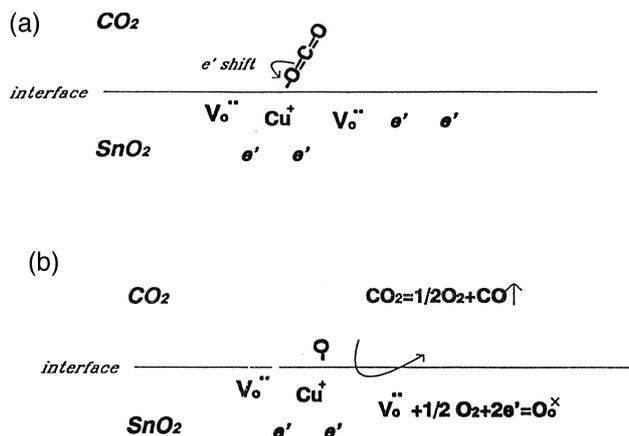


Fig. 11. Proposed mechanism of interaction between  $\text{CO}_2$  gas molecules and  $\text{SnO}_2(\text{CuO})$ .

from the surface of tin oxide in the absence of copper oxide. Apparently, the copper ions play an important role in the interaction of NO with sensing materials and the desorption of  $\text{O}^-$ , greatly influencing the speed of response and sensitivity.

#### 4.3.3. $\text{CO}_2$ detection

As schematically shown in Fig. 11, the detection mechanism is proposed as follows: some  $\text{Cu}^+$  ions and oxygen vacancies are located on the surface of the sensing element. When  $\text{CO}_2$  gas molecules are brought in contact with the sensing element, they are preferably adsorbed on the  $\text{Cu}^+$  sites to form a bond between them due to the existence of an unshared electron pair in oxygen and an empty d orbital in  $\text{Cu}^+$ . As the electron cloud rearrangement is oriented toward  $\text{Cu}^+$  side, which possesses higher electron affinity and eventually broken to release CO and  $\text{O}_2$ , the bond between oxygen and  $\text{Cu}^+$  ions is weakened. The oxygen molecules then recombine with oxygen vacancies through the reaction  $1/2\text{O}_2 + \text{V}_\text{o}^{\bullet\bullet} + 2\text{e}' = \text{O}_\text{o}^{\times}$ , extracting two free electrons from the conduction band of tin oxide at the same time. This would decrease the conductivity of the sensing material.

When the gas was switched from air to argon, the maximum  $R/R_0$  was about 8, which is merely due to the change in partial pressure of oxygen. When the gas exposed to the sensor was switched from pure air to pure carbon dioxide, the partial pressure of both oxygen and  $\text{CO}_2$  was changed at the same time and the maximum  $R/R_0$  was 4. Since the resistance of the sensing material increases with partial pressure of  $\text{O}_2$  but decreases with the partial pressure of  $\text{CO}_2$ , the interaction between  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{SnO}_2(\text{CuO})$  dominates the overall sensor response. Due to the ease of the bond formation between  $\text{Cu}^+$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  molecules, more  $\text{CO}_2$  are absorbed, which pick up more electrons than are released from the desorption of oxygen. Thus, the net effect is dominated by the interaction between  $\text{CO}_2$  and sensing material. Kinetically, the former

reaction is more favorable than the latter one, as shown in Figs. 7 and 9. The response of the sensing materials to  $\text{CO}_2$  is much faster than to  $\text{O}_2$ .

## 5. Conclusion

Doping of transition metal oxides to  $\text{SnO}_2$  dramatically influences the defect chemistry and the sintering behavior of tin oxide. The substitution of Sn ions by copper ions created more oxygen vacancies in the material, leading to a decrease in the free electron concentration and an increase in sensitivity of the material. For example, when the sample gas is switched from Ar to 1000 ppm NO + Ar, the change in resistance of  $\text{SnO}_2(\text{CuO})$  is 4.3 times while that of pure  $\text{SnO}_2$  is 2.9 times. The response time of the former is about 3 min, whereas that of the later is 18 min. The improved sensor performance of doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  over pure  $\text{SnO}_2$  is due to the catalytic interaction of copper ion with the gas species to be detected. The temperature at which a sensor exhibits optimal sensitivity depends on the sensor material,  $200^\circ\text{C}$  for doped  $\text{SnO}_2$  and  $300^\circ\text{C}$  for pure  $\text{SnO}_2$ . Further, it is found that, as the surface to volume ratio increases with decreasing particle size, both speed of response and sensitivity of a  $\text{SnO}_2(\text{CuO})$  sensor are significantly improved.

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